1 Introduction

Polymorphism refers to the possibility of an expression to have multiple types. In that sense, the simply-typed \( \lambda \)-calculus is polymorphic. For example, we have

\[
\lambda x. x : \tau \to \tau
\]

for any type \( \tau \). More specifically, then, we are interested in reflecting this property in a type itself. For example, we might want to state

\[
\lambda x. x : \forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha
\]

to express all the types above, but now in a single form. This means we could now reason within the type system about polymorphic functions rather than having to reason only at the metalevel with statements such as “for all types \( \tau, \ldots \)”. Our system will be slightly different from this, for reasons that will become apparent later.

Christopher Strachey [Str00] distinguished two forms of polymorphism: ad hoc polymorphism and parametric polymorphism. Ad hoc polymorphism refers to multiple types possessed by a given expression or function which has different implementations for different types. For example, \( \text{plus} \) might have type \( \text{int} \to \text{int} \to \text{int} \) but also \( \text{float} \to \text{float} \to \text{float} \) with different implementations at these two types. Similarly, a function \( \text{show} : \forall \alpha. \alpha \to \text{string} \) might convert an argument of any type into a string, but the conversion function itself will of course have to depend on the type of the argument: printing Booleans, integers, floating point numbers, pairs, etc. are all very different
operations. Even though it is an important concept in programming languages, in this lecture we will not be concerned with ad hoc polymorphism.

In contrast, **parametric polymorphism** refers to a function that behaves the same at all possible types. The identity function, for example, is parametrically polymorphic because it just returns its argument, regardless of its type. The essence of “parametricity” wasn’t rigorously captured until the beautiful analysis by John Reynolds [Rey83], which we will sketch in a later lecture on parametricity. In this lecture we will present typing rules and some examples.

Slightly different systems for parametric polymorphism were discovered independently by Jean-Yves Girard [Gir71] and John Reynolds [Rey74]. Girard worked in the context of logic and developed System F, while Reynolds worked directly on type systems for programming language and designed the polymorphic \( \lambda \)-calculus. With minor syntactic changes, we will follow Reynolds’s presentation.

## 2 Universally Quantified Types

We would like to add types of the form \( \forall \alpha. \tau \) to express parametric polymorphism. The fundamental idea is that an expression of type \( \forall \alpha. \tau \) is a function that takes a type as an argument.

This is a rather radical change of attitude. So far, our expressions contained no types at all, and suddenly types become embedded in expressions and are actually passed to functions! Let’s see where it leads us. Now we could write

\[
\lambda \alpha. \lambda x. x : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha
\]

but abstraction over a type seems so different from abstraction over a expressions that we make up a new notation and instead write

\[
\Lambda \alpha. \lambda x. x : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha
\]

using a capital lambda (\( \Lambda \)). In order to express the typing rules, our contexts carry two different forms of declarations: \( x : \tau \) (as we had so far) and now also \( \alpha \) type, expressing that \( \alpha \) is a type variable. The typing judgment then is still \( \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \), without repeated variables or type variables in \( \Gamma \). There will be some further presuppositions mentioned later. For type abstractions, we have the rule

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\Gamma, \alpha \text{ type } \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \Lambda \alpha. e : \forall \alpha. \tau}
\end{align*}
\]
Here, $\alpha$ is a bound variable in $\Lambda \alpha. e$ and $\forall \alpha. \tau$ so we allow it to be silently renamed if it conflicts with any variable already declared in $\Gamma$.

We haven’t yet seen how $\alpha$ can actually appear in $e$, but we can already verify:

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha & \text{ type }, x : \alpha & \text{ var} \\
\alpha & \text{ type } \vdash \lambda x. x : \alpha & \text{ lam} \\
\cdot & \vdash \Lambda \alpha. \lambda x. x : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha & \text{ tp/tlam}
\end{align*}
\]

The next question is how do we apply such a polymorphic function to a type? Again, we could just write $e \tau$ for the application of a polymorphic function $e$ to a type $\tau$, but we would like it to be more syntactically apparent so we write $e [\tau]$.

Let’s return to Church’s representation of natural numbers. With the quantifier, we now have

\[
nat = \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha
\]

Then we can verify with typing derivations as above:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{zero} & : nat \\
\text{zero} & = \Lambda \alpha. \lambda s. \lambda z. z
\end{align*}
\]

We also expect the successor function to have type $nat \rightarrow nat$, but there is one slightly tricky spot. We start:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{succ} & : nat \rightarrow nat \\
\text{succ} & = \lambda n. \Lambda \alpha. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n [\alpha])
\end{align*}
\]

Before, we just applied $n$ to $s$ and $z$, but now $n : nat$, which means that it expects a type as its first argument! At this point (in a hypothetical typing derivation we did not write out) we have the context

\[
n : nat, \alpha \text{ type }, s : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha, z : \alpha
\]

so we need to instantiate the quantifier with $\alpha$, which next requires arguments of type $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ and $\alpha$ (which we have at hand with $s$ and $z$).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{succ} & : nat \rightarrow nat \\
\text{succ} & = \lambda n. \Lambda \alpha. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n [\alpha] s z)
\end{align*}
\]
It becomes more interesting with the addition function. Recall that in the untyped setting we had

\[ \text{plus} = \lambda n. \lambda k. n \text{succ} k \]

iterating the successor function \( n \) times on argument \( k \). The start of the typed version is again relatively straightforward: the only difference is that we need to apply \( n \) first to a type.

\[ \text{plus} : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \]
\[ \text{plus} = \lambda n. \lambda k. n \left[ \text{nat} \right] \text{succ} k \]

But what type do we need? We have that the next argument has type \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} and the following one \text{nat}, so that we need to instantiate \( \alpha \) with \text{nat}!

\[ \text{plus} : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \]
\[ \text{plus} = \lambda n. \lambda k. n \left[ \text{nat} \right] \text{succ} k \]

So we need that

\[ n : \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \]

and then

\[ n \left[ \text{nat} \right] : (\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}) \rightarrow \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \]

We should point out that this definition of addition cannot be typed in the simply-typed \( \lambda \)-calculus. In that setting, \( n \) can only be applied to functions \( s \) of type \( \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \) to iterate starting from \( z : \alpha \). This means that very few functions are actually definable—essentially only functions like successor and addition, but not exponentiation, or predecessor (see Exercise 1).

A significant aspect of this is that we instantiate the quantifier in \( \text{nat} = \forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \) with \text{nat} itself.

These considerations lead us to a rule where we substitute into the type:

\[ \Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash \sigma \text{ type} \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash e \left[ \sigma \right] : [\sigma / \alpha] \tau \quad \text{tp/tpapp} \]

The second premise is there to check that the type \( \sigma \) which is part of the expression \( e \left[ \sigma \right] \) is valid. At this point in the course, this just means that all the type variables occurring in \( \sigma \) are declared in \( \Gamma \) (just like all the expression variables in \( e \) must be declared in \( \Gamma \)).

Here is a small sample derivation, assuming we have defined

\[ \text{id} : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \]
\[ \text{id} = \Lambda \alpha. \lambda x. x \]
Then we can typecheck:

\[
\vdash id : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \quad \vdash \text{id} \cdot \text{nat} \quad \vdash \text{tpapp} \quad \vdash id [\text{nat}] : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \quad \vdash 3 : \text{nat} \quad \vdash \text{app}
\]

where we need some rules to verify that \text{nat} is a closed type (that is, has no free type variables). Fortunately, that’s easy: we just check all the components of a type.

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \quad \frac{\alpha \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \alpha} \quad \frac{\Gamma, \alpha \text{ type} \quad \tau \text{ type}}{\Gamma \vdash \forall \alpha. \tau \text{ type}}
\]

3 Summary: Typing Rules

For the “official” typing rules it is convenient to assume that \(\lambda\)-abstractions are annotated with the type of the bound variable. In practice, we use a more flexible set of rules where \(\lambda\)-abstractions do not necessarily have to be annotated.

Here is the summary of the language of the polymorphic \(\lambda\)-calculus:

- **Types** \[ \tau ::= \alpha \mid \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \mid \forall \alpha. \tau \]
- **Expressions** \[ e ::= x \mid \lambda x: \tau. e \mid e_1 e_2 \mid \Delta \alpha. e \mid e[\tau] \]
- **Contexts** \[ \Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : \tau \mid \Gamma, \alpha \text{ type} \]

We assume that all variables and type variables in a context are distinct, and rename bound variable or type variables to maintain this invariant.

In order to avoid any “loopholes” in typing derivations we would like to presuppose that the context is well-formed, which comes down to ensuring that all the types occurring in them are valid. We did not discuss this somewhat technical point in lecture, but for completeness’ sake we provide the rules. The judgment \(\Gamma \text{ ctx}\) means that \(\Gamma\) is a valid (or well-formed) context.
We now assume that whenever we write $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ or $\Gamma \vdash \tau \text{ type}$ then $\Gamma \text{ ctx}$. In type theory we call this a presupposition and we are always careful to maintain this presupposition.

We then have the property (called regularity in the textbook) that if $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ under the presupposition that $\Gamma \text{ ctx}$ then $\Gamma \vdash \tau \text{ type}$. This is easy to verify by rule induction (see Exercise 2).

4 Typing Self-Application Polymorphically

As an exercise in building a typing derivation, we provide a polymorphic type for self-application $\lambda x. x \ x$. We accomplish this by allowing $x$ to have a polymorphic types $\forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha$. We call this type $u$ because there is exactly one normal term of this type: the polymorphic identity function. Applying the identity to itself seems plausible in any case. So we claim:

$$u = \forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha$$

$$\omega : u \to u$$

$$\omega = \lambda x. x \ [u] \ x$$

This is established by the following typing derivation. When you want to build such a derivation yourself, you should always build it “bottom-up”, starting with the final conclusion. The fact that the rules are syntax-directed
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means you have no choice which rule to choose, but some parts of the type may be unknown and may need to be filled in later.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
x : u \vdash x [u] : t \\
x : u \vdash x : u \\
\end{array}
\]

\[\frac{x : u \vdash x [u] \quad x : u \vdash x}{x : u \vdash x [u] \quad x : u \vdash x : u} \text{tp/app}
\]

\[\frac{x : u \vdash x [u] \quad x : u \vdash x}{x : u \vdash x [u] \quad x : u \vdash x : u} \text{tp/lam}
\]

As a rule of thumb, it seems to work best to first fill in the first premise of an application (rule tp/app) and then the second. Continuing in the left branch of the derivation (and remembering that \(u = \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha\)):

\[\vdash \lambda x. x [u] \quad x : u \rightarrow u \]

The type emphasized in red arises as \([u/\alpha](\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) = u \rightarrow u\). The second premise of the application is immediate by the typing rule for variables and we obtain

\[\vdash \lambda x. x [u] \quad x : u \rightarrow u \]

The fact that \(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha\) is a valid type follows quickly by the tp/arrow and tp/tapp rules. There are more types that work for self-application (see Exercise 3).

Crucial in this example is that we can instantiate the quantifier in \(u = \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha\) with \(u\) itself. This “self-referential” nature of the type quantifier is called impredicativity because it quantifies not only over types already defined, but also itself. Some systems of type theory reject impredicative quantification because the meaning of the quantified type is not constructed from the meaning of types we previously understand. Impredicativity was
also seen as a source of paradoxes, although Girard did give a syntactic argument for the consistency of System F [Gir71] with impredicative quantification.

5 Church Numerals Revisited

We can now revisit the representation of Church numerals and express them and functions on them in the polymorphic $\lambda$-calculus. We present the definitions in the language LAMBDA, which uses polymorphic types when files have extension .poly or the command line argument -l poly. We use $!a$ as concrete syntax for $\forall$ and $\backslash a$ for $\Lambda a$. Type definitions are preceded by the keyword type, and type declarations for variable definitions are preceded by the keyword decl.

```
1 type nat = !a. (a -> a) -> a -> a
2
dcl zero : nat
3 dcl succ : nat -> nat
4
defn zero = \a. \s. \z. z
5
defn succ = \n. \a. \s. \z. s (n [a] s z)
6
dcl plus : nat -> nat -> nat
7 dfn plus = \n. \k. n [nat] succ k
8
dcl times : nat -> nat -> nat
9 dfn times = \n. \k. n [nat] (plus k) zero
10
11 norm _0 = zero
12 norm _1 = succ _0
13 norm _2 = succ _1
14 norm _3 = succ _2
15
16 norm _6 = times _2 _3
```

Listing 1: Polymorphic natural numbers in LAMBDA

So far, this straightforwardly follows the structure of the motivating examples. In order to represent the predecessor function, we require pairs of natural numbers. But what are their types? Recall:

\[
pair = \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda k. k x y
\]
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from which conjecture something like

\[
\text{pair} : \text{nat} \to \text{nat} \to (\text{nat} \to \text{nat} \to \tau) \to \tau
\]

where \( \tau \) is arbitrary. So we realize that this function is polymorphic and we abstract over the result type of the continuation. We call the type of pairs of natural numbers \( \text{nat}_2 \). In the type of the \( \text{pair} \) function it is then convenient to place the type abstraction after the two natural numbers have been received.

\[
\text{nat}_2 = \forall \alpha. (\text{nat} \to \text{nat} \to \alpha) \to \alpha
\]

\[
\text{pair} : \text{nat} \to \text{nat} \to \text{nat}_2
\]

\[
\text{pair} = \lambda x. \lambda y. \Lambda \alpha. \lambda k. k x y
\]

Now we can define the \( \text{pred}_2 \), with the specification that \( \text{pred}_2 \ \bar{n} = \text{pair} \ \bar{n} \ \bar{n} - 1 \).

We leave open the two places we have to provide a type.

\[
\text{pred}_2 : \text{nat} \to \text{nat} \to \text{nat}
\]

\[
\text{pred}_2 = \lambda n. n [\text{nat}_2] (\lambda p. p [\text{nat}_2] (\lambda x. \lambda y. \text{pair} (\text{succ} x) x)) (\text{pair} \ \text{zero} \ \text{zero})
\]

In the first box, we need to fill in the result type of the iteration (which is the type argument to \( n \)), and this is \( \text{nat}_2 \). In the second box we need to fill in the result type for the decomposition into a pair, and that is also \( \text{nat}_2 \). Then, for the final definition of \( \text{pred} \) we only extract the second component of the pair, so the continuation only returns a natural number rather than a pair.

\[
\text{pred} : \text{nat} \to \text{nat}
\]

\[
\text{pred} = \lambda n. n [\text{nat}] (\lambda x. \lambda y. y)
\]

Below is a summary of this code in LAMBDA.

```lambda
1 type nat2 = !a. (nat -> nat -> a) -> a
2 decl pair : nat -> nat -> nat2
3 defn pair = \x. \y. /\a. \k. k x y
4 decl pred2 : nat -> nat2
5 defn pred2 = \n. n [nat2] (\p. p [nat2] (\x. \y. pair (\text{succ} x) x)) (pair \text{zero} \text{zero})
6 decl pred : nat -> nat
7 defn pred = \n. pred2 n [nat] (\x. \y. y)
8 norm _6_5 = pred2 _6
9 norm _5 = pred _6
```

Listing 2: Predecessor on natural numbers in LAMBDA
6 Theory

We did not discuss this in lectures, but of course we should expect the properties for the simply-typed λ-calculus to carry over, once suitable reduction rules have been defined. We will talk about these at the beginning of the next lecture.

One remarkable fact about the polymorphic λ-calculus (which is quite difficult to prove) is that every expression still has a normal form.

Exercises

Exercise 1

(i) Find a definition of plus : nat → nat → nat that works in the simply-typed λ-calculus in the sense that we need to instantiate the type ∀α.(α → α) → α → α only with a type variable.

(ii) Give a simply-typed definition (in the sense of part (i)) for times or conjecture that none exists.

Exercise 2 Prove that if Γ ⊢ e : τ under the presupposition that Γ ctx then Γ ⊢ τ type.

Exercise 3 We write F for a (mathematical) function from types to types (which is not expressible in the polymorphic λ-calculus but requires system Fω). A more general family of types (one for each F) for self-application is given by

w_F = ∀α.α → F(α)
ω_F : w_F → F(w_F)
ω_F = λx.x [w_F] x

We recover the type from this lecture with F = Λα.α.α. You may want to verify the general typing derivation in preparation for the following questions, but you do not need to show it.

(i) Consider F = Λα.α → α. In this case w_F = bool. Calculate the type and characterize the behavior of ω_F as a function on Booleans.

(ii) Consider F = Λα.(α → α) → α. Calculate w_F, the type of ω_F, and characterize the the behavior of ω_F. Can you relate w_F and ω_F to the types and functions we have considered in the course so far?
References


